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Language Learning Strategies, Strategy Training, and the 6 Steps to Success

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Language Learning Strategies, Strategy Training, and the 6 Steps to Success

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Report

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Master of Arts

The University of Texas at Austin

May 2012

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Dr. Horwitz for her help and guidance throughout the Report process. I would also like to thank Dr. Teresia Taylor, Professor and Foreign Language Department Head at Hardin-Simmons University for being a phenomenal advisor, mentor, and friend throughout my four years at HSU. Without her guidance, encouragement, and support, I would not be the person that I am today. Dr. Taylor, thank you for all that you have done and for showing me what it truly means to be a transformational teacher. I hope to one day have the impact on my students that you have had on me. I would also like to thank my parents (Modge and Podge) and friends (Kalin Ledbetter, Bronwyn Hill, Alex Taylor, Meggi Serrette, Miranda Tacoronti, and Amy Joseph) for their continued support, late night talks, and "rant sessions" these past two years. I love you all dearly.

Abstract

Language Learning Strategies, Strategy Training, and the 6 Steps to Success

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Language learning strategies (LLS) have been a popular topic in the SLA literature since their conception by Joan Rubin in 1975. In the beginning, the focus was placed on what constituted an LLS and which learner variables affected strategy use. More recently, the field has moved to the practical application of LLS research: strategy training. Strategy training research has focused on student and teacher beliefs, classroom culture and students' culture, explicit vs. implicit instruction, and language of instruction and has had largely positive findings. These issues are explored, then made manifest in a review of four popular strategy training models: The CALLA, Oxford, Grenfell and Harris, and SBI. Drawing on the LLS research and these four models, I propose a new model for strategy training: the 6 Steps to Success. As the title indicates, the 6 Steps to Success includes 6 steps: 1) beginning of course assessment/awareness raising; 2) continued assessment of student needs/awareness raising; 3) explicit teaching and modeling; 4) practice; 5) evaluation, 6) end of course evaluation. Five lesson plans are then given to demonstrate the 6 Steps to Success in action.

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Introduction

Whether cognizant of it or not, every individual uses (or attempts to use) strategies of some sort to their benefit. The hungry newborn screams to notify its mother that it is ready to eat; the young boy prepares an elaborate date in hopes of impressing his new girlfriend; the manager of a company works 60+ hours a week in an effort to "be noticed" and move up; and the basketball coach decides on plays and tactics to use against the other team with the goal of winning the game. The methods used in the above scenarios can be viewed as the strategies that the "doer" uses to reach their ultimate goal: food, a girlfriend, a better job, or a win. Each of these individuals choose their particular strategy in that situation for the given task. If manager did not care about getting a promotion, he might instead be lazy; while if the young boy wanted to break up with his girlfriend, he would not be planning elaborate dates. Each individual tailors their strategies to the task they are "given" or seeking.

While learning strategies are used in all areas of education, learning strategies also apply directly to language learning. As the field of second language acquisition has recently shifted in focus from teacher-centered to learner-centered, there has been the growing idea that "much of the responsibility for success at language learning rests with individual learners and with their ability to take full advantage of opportunities to learn" (Cohen, 1990, pg. vii). This ability for the learner to "take full advantage" of their learning has initiated new research in the field of strategy training and has produced varying results and pedagogical implications.

As language learning strategies and their instruction are necessary topics in the field of SLA, this report seeks to expand on the issues by examining the body of work surrounding language learning strategies and strategy training. It is broken into four sections. The first section looks at what language learning strategies are and the variables that affect language students' strategy choice. This is followed by a review of the literature on strategy training, looking at how teachers can move from the sole base of knowledge to the role of facilitator and empower their students to become autonomous learners. The second section also provides four examples of current (and successful) strategy training models. Then, based off of the research, the third section brings together the work on language learning strategies and strategy training by providing a new model of strategy training: the 6 Steps to Success. This is followed with section four, which brings the 6 Steps to Success to life by providing example lesson plans.

Language Learning Strategies

The field of language learning strategies has seen immense changes in the past forty years. Beginning in 1975 with Joan Rubin's seminal work, "What the "Good Language Learner" Can Teach Us", the field began looking at those good language learners (GLL) and what strategies they used. The belief was that if language educators could map out the strategies that made the GLL successful, they could then teach these strategies to other less successful students.

Rubin's early work laid down the foundation that the GLL was a willing and accurate guesser, was active, was not bothered by ambiguity, used a wide repertoire of strategies, and held a strong desire for communication and motivation to learn the language (Rubin, 1975). After Rubin (1975), and others (Naiman, Frohlich, & Todesco, 1975; Stern, 1975) identified qualities of the GLL and strategies that they engaged in, researchers began to move from looking at the learner to looking at the construct of language learning strategies. The 1980s to mid-1990s reflected a period of "definitional" literature, with authors focusing on what constituted a language learning strategy and "nailing down" the theory behind the construct. Since then, the field has moved toward the direction of what practical applications can be derived from the study of language learning strategies, focusing on strategy training and the way it can be incorporated into the second language classroom.

From previous work, language learning strategies (LLSs) are said to be "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

LLSs enable language students to become successful, autonomous learners (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Oxford, 1990), and are thought to be a construct that students actively engage in (both physically and mentally), are at some level consciously employed, are used to improve L2 competence, are goal oriented and purposeful, are used to regulate learning, and most importantly, used to learn (Cohen, 2007; Griffiths, 2008).

TAXONOMIES

The taxonomies used to classify language learning strategies (often leading in a subsequent questionnaire), are widespread (O'Malley et al. 1985, Oxford, 1990, O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). One of the most well-known taxonomies is undoubtedly that of Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The SILL is a self-report measure of strategy use, breaking LLSs into 6 broad categories. As Oxford notes, these six categories naturally include a "large overlap" (1990, p. 16), meaning one strategy can be "placed" into multiple strategy categories. The six categories are as follows:

1. Metacognitive- overarching strategies to help regulate student learning. These include students evaluating their own progress, scheduling time to study/practice the target language, monitoring of errors, etc.
2. Cognitive- general strategies that involve the manipulation or the target language. These include reasoning, summarizing, and practicing.
3. Memory- strategies that involve the memorization of target language words and forms. Examples include creating pairs, grouping, rhyming, etc.

4. Compensatory- strategies that are used to make up for a lack of knowledge. These strategies include guessing (perhaps based off of context clues), the use of circumlocution, using gestures, etc.
5. Social- strategies that are used in pair/group contexts. Examples of social strategies include asking questions, learning about the target language culture, etc.
6. Affective- strategies that are used to regulate anxiety, self-encouragement, self-reward, etc.

These strategies are further classified into two larger umbrella categories: direct and indirect strategies. As the name suggests, direct strategies are strategies that directly use the target language, requiring some kind of mental processing and manipulation of the language (memory, cognitive, and compensation), while indirect strategies indirectly support language learning, however not dealing with the target language directly (social, affective, and metacognitive) (Oxford, 1990).

Overall, the SILL categories view language learning strategies as constructs that can be used in all the skills that a student uses while learning a second language, thus acknowledging the possibility of specific language learning skills such as listening strategies or writing strategies. To this end, there is a separate skill-specific body of literature for reading, writing, listening, communicative, and vocabulary strategies. However, due to the scope of this paper, only general language learning strategies such as those as outlined in the SILL will be addressed.

METHODS OF ASSESSING STUDENTS' STRATEGY USE

As noted, Oxford's SILL doubles as a taxonomy and a self-report inventory for collecting descriptive data about students' strategy use. Over the years, a number of other strategy inventories have been published and are available for use (See White, Schramm, & Chamot, 2007 for a detailed look at several models). These quantitative measures allow the teacher to see overall trends in strategy use; i.e.: do students use social strategies more than affective strategies? Do students seem to struggle with metacognitive strategies?, etc.

Having an overall view of strategy use is an important tool for the teacher, as it allows her to structure lessons so that students have more opportunities to use the strategies they prefer, or, depending on the objective, help students to practice strategies they report using less frequently (allowing them to build a larger repertoire of strategies). However, strategy inventories only provide a snapshot of students strategy use and do not give the teacher insight into the thought process of the students' strategy choices. Additionally, inventories such as the SILL rely on students reporting their strategy use outside of completing an actual language task. This leaves room for error, as students may not remember which strategies they used while completing language tasks, or not answer the inventory questions honestly (White et al., 2007).

Even though inventories are widely used (and arguably the easiest), other methods of data collection are available to the teacher. While not an exhaustive list, other such methods of data collection include think-alouds, diary entries, and teacher observations.

Think-alouds involve a process in which the student completes a language task (such as reading, completing a cloze passage, etc.) while stating outloud what they are thinking as the complete the task.

[The teacher shows an overhead transparency of a reading text and says:]
I'm going to show you what I do when I read. I'm going to describe my thinking. The first thing I do is to look at the title. And I think, 'What is this story going to be about? What do I already know about this topic?'
[The teacher makes a guess about the topic and also describes some personal prior knowledge related to the topic.]
Now that I've made a prediction about this story, I'm ready to start reading.
[The teacher reads aloud, pointing to the words as she goes.] Oh, here's a word I don't know. [The teacher points to a difficult word.] What shall I do? Maybe if I read the next sentence it will give me a clue.
[The teacher reads on and uses context to make an inference about the meaning of the difficult word.]

Figure 1: Thinking Aloud, taken from Rubin et al., 2007, p. 145

Figure 1 demonstrates a teacher modeling a think-aloud for a reading assignment for her class. Think-alouds can be useful tools in helping teachers understand the process behind their students' strategy choice, and help them to address issues when they see a mismatch in the strategy used and the task given (See White et al., 2007 for a more detailed review on the subject).

Language learning strategy diaries can also be effective in collecting information about students' strategy use (Oxford, 1990). White et al. (2007) note that a strategy diary is "an open-ended instrument in that writers note down anything that comes to mind in reaction to learner strategies" (p. 97). Teachers can have students complete strategy diaries while completing tasks in the classroom, as well as while working on assignments at home. Strategy diaries are similar to think-alouds, as often times, students complete the

diary after the task is completed. Like think-alouds, strategy diaries provide the teacher with more detailed information into the mind of their learners.

Along with these methods, more informal strategy assessment measures do exist. Informal classroom observations allow the teacher to view firsthand the strategies her students use in class. Observations should be conducted both in independent work as well as whole group activities (Oxford, 1990). Additionally, the teacher can focus on one learner in particular, a group of learners, or the entire class.

These methods and others have been used to collect data about language learning strategies throughout the years and have contributed to the language learning strategies literature. The methods for data collection provide information on which students use which strategies and how often, and some tools (like think-alouds) even give insight into the learners mind. However, these measurements still leave for the understanding of what learner variables effect strategy choice.

VARIABLES

Starting in the early days of Rubin (1975), it was believed that only "good" language learners were active and used strategies to assist their learning. It was not until the work of Vann and Abraham (1990) that this common thought began to change. Vann and Abraham conducted one of the first qualitative LLSs studies in which they observed the strategy use of two Saudi Arabian women while performing four different language tasks: a personal interview, a fill-in-the-blank verb exercise, a cloze exercise about cultural differences, and a written composition. The authors looked at the process of strategy use by analyzing think-alouds and by taking observations of the strategies used

by each learner in comparison to the task given. The findings of their work demonstrated that it was not just the successful student who was an active learner employing a large repertoire of strategies, but that unsuccessful learners were also active learners, often using strategies similar to those of their successful peers. However, by examining the process of strategies used, Vann and Abraham determined that the discrepancy between these two groups of learners lay within strategy application. The less successful Saudi Arabian students were not able to choose an appropriate strategy for the task at hand, while according to the researchers, good language learners are able to do so (almost) effortlessly.

The idea that all learners are active strategy users is also supported by the work of Green and Oxford (1995). Following their study of Puerto Rican university students learning English as a second language, Green and Oxford posit that each student has access to and uses "bedrock strategies". Bedrock strategies are the strategies that "contribute significantly to the learning process of the more successful students, although not being in themselves sufficient to move the less successful students to higher proficiency levels" (Green & Oxford, 1995, p. 289) and are used regardless of learner variables such as gender and proficiency. These "bedrock strategies" lead way to the argument that even unsuccessful students are using LLSs to some degree.

If both successful and unsuccessful students are active strategy users, what causes the less successful learners to choose inappropriate strategies for their language tasks? It can be argued that individual and environmental differences lead way for this difference. In looking at individual differences, the variable of gender plays a large role. Findings are varied, as some studies report that females use strategies more often than males (Green &

Oxford, 1995), while others report males using strategies more frequently than females (Wharton, 2000). While the specific factors of "maleness" and "femaleness" that lead to varied strategy use are unknown (and an entirely different paper), it is evident that gender is an attributable factor.

Unlike gender, the effects of proficiency level on strategy are not so varied. More proficient language learners demonstrate use of a greater variety (and often) a larger amount of learning strategies. (Bruen, 2001; Green & Oxford, 1995; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wharton, 2000). The findings from these studies also demonstrate that more proficient students are able to select and use a language strategy that meets the demands of the language task given.

Along with level of proficiency, students' nationality and culture also influence strategy choice. Wharton's (2000) study of bilingual university students in Singapore showed that the bilingual Asian students had a high preference for social strategies and a low preference for affective strategies (based on the SILL strategy categories). In addition to this, Griffiths' (2003) study of English language learners in New Zealand demonstrated statistically significant differences according to strategy use and students' nationality. Career choice and field of study have also emerged as a motivating factor for strategy choice (Ehrman and Oxford, 1989, Gu, 2002, Oxford and Nyikos, 1989), and even learning style (Oxford and Ehrman, 1995).

In concert with individual variables, a student's choice of strategies would also seem to be context dependent. When in the classroom, if the student forgets a vocabulary word, they are able to locate the nearest dictionary and look it up at their convenience. However, if the student is speaking the target language outside of the classroom and

forgets a word they would like to use, they may not have access to a dictionary and may instead choose to use circumlocution to describe the word or ask their interlocutor for help. Often, context is the most vital factor in a learner's strategy choice. No matter the learner's proficiency level, the inability to choose an appropriate strategy for the task at hand could mean the difference between success and failure.

Strategy Training

As can be seen in the section above, language learning strategies are a vital tool that can be made available to the L2 student. However, not all students readily understand the concept of language learning strategies, nor how to apply them to their language learning process. Herein lays the teacher's unique opportunity to facilitate the L2 learning of her students by conducting strategy training. Strategy training refers to the teaching (whether explicit or implicit- to be discussed later) of language learning strategies to L2 students. Strategy training can cover a variety of strategies, or focus on just a few (Oxford, 1990). No matter what the strategy training looks like, the overall goal of strategy training is to "empower students by allowing them to take control of the language learning process" (Cohen, 1998, p. 70).

Concerning the field of foreign language education, strategy training research has yielded many positive results, including higher levels of learner autonomy and better performance on language tasks (Oxford, 2003; Chamot and Kupper, 1989; Brown and Perry, 1991; Nunan, 1997; O'Malley et al., 1985). In an overview of six strategy training case studies conducted and examined by Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, and Sutter (1990), results from all learning environments revealed positive results from strategy training. Three of the case studies were conducted in beginning Spanish, Russian, and German classrooms in American universities. The results from these case studies showed that students not only developed an awareness of how they learned the L2, but were also able to identify their language learning needs. In the Russian classroom, students used the strategies of self-monitoring, and would ask the professor

for extra work in the areas of the class that with which they were having difficulties. In the German classroom, it was noted that the use of learning strategies quickly made the class a "unique, enjoyable, and truly motivating experience" (Oxford et al., 1990, p 207). To top it off, the most interesting finding (and most rewarding as a teacher), was that the thinking of students in the Spanish classroom moved from "How can I get a good grade?" to "How can I approach learning?" (p. 204).

A truly rewarding experience for the language educator is the moment when students become involved in their learning: not just seeking to achieve an "A" in the course, but upon seeing their progress, becoming intrinsically motivated to be more proficient L2 users. This motivation encourages students to choose higher level materials that challenge their learning (Chen, 2007) and helps them to become more focused and purposeful in their learning (Chen, 2007). To add to this, strategy training on junior college students in Taiwan resulted in students' ability to build their own strategy repertoire, choose strategies that aligned with their learning styles, and helped students foster a positive attitude to learning the foreign language (Chen, 2007).

Overall, the results of strategy training research show positive findings and continued support for strategy training in the L2 classroom. However, as with any instructional practice, there are variables that affect the quality and effectiveness of said training. The four factors that will be reviewed in this paper are: beliefs about language learning and student/teacher roles, classroom culture and students' culture, explicit versus implicit teaching and integration of strategies, and the language of instruction.

BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING AND STUDENT/TEACHER ROLES

The way in which students learn and study their L2 is often times descriptive of their beliefs of what constitutes the L2 learning process. If a student believes that grammar is the only way to acquire the L2, their actions may manifest in an extensive grammar study, following textbooks and completing drills and rote memorization techniques. Likewise, if a student believes that extensive input is the key to language learning, they may spend their time listening to music, watching TV shows, and reading in the target language. Rivera-Mills and Plonsky (2007) also hold to this view as they note that students' strategy use "has been found many times over to be consistent with the beliefs they hold about the process of SLA" (p. 538). In further support of this idea, Abraham and Vann (1987) suggest that "learners have, at some level of consciousness, a philosophy of how language is learned. This philosophy guides the approach they take in language learning situations, which in turn is manifested in observable (and unobservable) strategies used in learning and communication" (pg. 96).

In light of these findings, it is essential that the language educator understands the views that her students hold towards language learning and ensure that these views align with the goals of the course, so that students will use a combination of strategies that will benefit them the most. If communicative competence is the primary goal of the course, students must understand that working in groups, creating and performing dialogues, and interacting with target language speakers in the community could prove more helpful than grammar drills or translation activities. In contrast, if the goal of the course is to produce text translators, translating authentic texts to and from the target language might be a better use of time than extensive listening and speaking activities. This is not to say

that one method or activity is inherently better than the other, only that the appropriateness of each activity varies in the context of the language learning goals for the class and for each student.

A mismatch between student and teacher beliefs about language learning "may have a negative affective impact by causing tension, demotivation, frustration, and other learning conditions that are counterproductive to directed L2 acquisition (Garrett & Shortall, 2002, Green 1993, McCargar 1993, Morris & Tarone 2003, Noels 2001, Noels et al 1999, Oxford 2001b, Peacock 2001)" (Rivera-Mills & Plonsky, 2007, p.537).

As the students better understand the language learning process and trust in the teacher's methods for conducting the course, their strategy use will begin to reflect this change. Rivera-Mills and Plonsky (2007) suggest that aligning beliefs can be accomplished by "including information regarding the nature of L2 acquisition as a part of everyday class discussion" (p. 539). Following this, as the teacher knows and understands the ways in which her students learn best and better understands the course objectives, she will able to guide her students in their discovery of their language learning beliefs, in turn leading to more appropriate use of language learning strategies for the given context.

Along with beliefs about language learning, the beliefs that students hold about their and their teacher's role in the classroom can set the stage for the classroom dynamic (student-centered vs. teacher-centered). As the goal of strategy training is to produce autonomous learners, there must be a restructuring of this classroom dynamic. A classroom built upon strategy training must move away the idea of "teacher-directed" instruction and more towards the "teacher as facilitator" model (Oxford et al., 1990). In

this model, the teacher guides students through the learning process, providing scaffolding and support, and also enabling learners (through strategy training) to assume more responsibility of and control over their own learning.

This change in role also requires a change in mindset among both teachers and learners (Oxford 1990, Oxford et al. 1990, Rivera-Mills & Plonsky, 2007). In a strategies training classroom, the teacher must be prepared (and willing) to enable their students to work more autonomously. Likewise, the students must understand that they will not just be "spoon-fed" material, but will be required to "take hold" of their own learning. In this change of classroom structure, Rivera-Mills and Plonsky suggest that "it is crucial for the instructor-student dialogue to remain open throughout strategies training in order to bridge the gap between differing perspectives" (2007, p. 537). Building this shared expectation between teacher and student can be done through the teacher's rules and procedures discussed at the beginning of the school year and continued through class discussion over the course of the year.

CLASSROOM CULTURE AND STUDENTS' CULTURE

The change in classroom dynamic to empowering learners through a student centered approach will also result in a change to the classroom culture. Often times, the culture of the classroom shifts from an individualized and competitive environment to that of a group and team-focused environment in which students work together and help each other.

In the general educational literature, this emphasis on working together is identified as a cooperative learning environment. A cooperative learning environment is

an environment in which students "work together to accomplish shared goals" (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Research has demonstrated that cooperative learning environments are effective in terms of student achievement (Johnson & Johnson, 1990; Slavin, 1980), and also demonstrates that these cooperative environments can lead to positive classroom affect (Slavin, 1980). With this in mind, a cooperative learning environment, when coupled with strategy training could be helpful in the second language classroom. In light of the research, the teacher has the ability to contribute to positive student affect by promoting cooperative learning and in turn, creating a positive classroom culture while still making modifications to certain tasks and activities in a way that best helps each student.

Not only does the teacher need to keep classroom culture in mind when conducting strategy training, but she also needs to be cognizant of her students' family and community culture. The second language student comes into the language classroom having been exposed to and influenced (to some degree) by their family's and community's set of "attitudes, values, goals and practices" ("culture", Merriam-Webster.com). As such, it is unfair for the teacher to assume that strategy training is a "one-size-fits-all-cultures" instructional practice and is important that the teacher take the students' culture into account when designing strategy training lessons (Oxford 1990; Oxford et al. 1990; Chamot, 2008; Chamot 2004). A more complete description of the influence of culture on strategy choice can be found in Language Learning Strategies: Variables section of this paper.

However, both classroom culture and students' culture are inherently intertwined. Chamot notes that "in a culture that prizes individual competition and has organized its

education system around competitive tasks, successful language learners may prefer strategies that allow them to work alone rather than social strategies that call for collaboration with others" (2004, p. 18). Along with this, Oxford (1990) suggests that when seeking to create a cooperative learning environment, it might "be necessary to help learners confront- and possibly modify- their culturally defined attitudes toward cooperation and competition" (p. 146).

In an effort to confront these culturally based attitudes, Chamot (2008) suggests that after teachers discover the learning strategies that they currently use, they should hold an open class discussion to discover why student use these strategies. This will help the teacher to better understand that cultural influences of their students' language learning strategy use, and better equip them to create effective strategy training.

EXPLICIT VS. IMPLICIT AND INTEGRATED STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

In the realm of second language learning, researchers overwhelmingly agree that explicit strategy training is an important component of classroom teaching (See Chamot, 2004 for a review on the subject). Explicit strategy training "essentially involves the development of students' awareness of the strategies they use, teacher modeling of strategic thinking, student practice with new strategies, student self-evaluation of the strategies used, and practice in transferring strategies to new tasks" (Chamot, 2008, p 273). Through this process, the learner develops the metacognitive knowledge of "learning how to learn". Drawing from the work of Wenden (1987), Kinoshita (2007) states that through explicit strategy instruction, students "become reactive learners as they increase their awareness, practice, use and monitoring of the language learning strategies

they are using while learning a second or foreign language. The learner outcome is an efficient learner who has developed the skills to successfully organize and conduct their own learning events" (2007, Direct and Indirect Instruction, para. 1)

While explicit training leads to "efficient learners", not all implicit (or uniformed) strategy training models are lacking. In citing O'Malley and Chamot (1995), Kinoshita (2007, How Should Language-Learning Strategies be Taught, para. 1) defines an implicit strategy training model as one in which "students work through materials and activities designed to elicit the use of specific strategies, but… are not informed of the name, purpose, or value of the specific learning strategy" (p. 3). Notable forms of implicit strategy training are found in classroom textbooks (through instructions or rubrics) (O'Malley & Chamot, 1995). Often, these textbooks ask students to use strategies from all six SILL categories (see Language Learning Strategies: Taxonomies for a review of the SILL).

Examples of uniformed strategy training are prevalent in many textbooks, especially in the high school setting. The level 1 text *Buen Viaje* (Schmitt & Woodford, 2005), published by Glencoe/McGraw Hill, offers students multiple opportunities in each chapter to use strategies "without knowing it". For example, Chapter 5 (En el café) includes a "Nota" in the preliminary vocabulary section of the text.

In this "Nota", students are given a small paragraph in Spanish and are encouraged to use the compensatory strategy of guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words with the prompt of "guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. The other words in the sentence provide the context and will help you understand words you do not know" (*Buen Viaje*, 2005, p. 143). To this point, students may not yet have been explicitly taught

this strategy, or have not yet applied it to learning vocabulary from the initial pages of each chapter. By providing the "Nota", *Buen Viaje* offers students an additional chance at strategy practice. In addition to this, several pages later, students are encouraged to use social strategies when asked to go a Hispanic market. Students are prompted to "visit a Hispanic market in your community with your classmates…be sure to speak Spanish" (*Buen Viaje*, 2005, p. 149).

However, in referencing Wenden (1987), Kinoshita (2007) recognizes three limitations within the uniformed strategy training construct: 1)- That learners may not be proficient enough in the target language to understand directions written in the target language; 2)- that not all learners will recognize the strategy used; and 3)- that without the explicit instruction, learners cannot intentionally increase their strategy repertoire, leading to an inability to transfer strategies to new tasks.

While to some degree valid, these limitations can be argued. In regards to learners' proficiency, not all textbooks are written solely in the target language (as can be noted in *Buen Viaje*). If the teacher is working with beginning students and would like to incorporate uniformed strategy training, they simply need to choose their textbook carefully. In looking at students' recognition of the strategies being used, if the "Notas" (or the like) are used on a consistent basis, eventually the strategies being elicited will be incorporated into the learners' schemas and will become a habitual action. In this case, it may be beneficial for the teacher to draw the students' attention to these "Notas" (although it could be argued as defeating the purpose of the "uninformed" part of the training).

In addition to *how* strategy training should be conducted, *when* strategy training should be conducted is also an issue of debate. Many researchers support integrated instruction, as it provides students with "opportunities to practice learning strategies with authentic language learning tasks" (Chamot, 2004), others believe that strategy instruction in the language classroom does not allow for transfer to other tasks (Gu, 1996). Regardless, the majority of the research points to integration in the regular classroom (see Chamot, 2004 for a detailed overview). Additionally, Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson (2007) claim that "all evidence points to greater effectiveness when promoting process (learning) and product (target language)… in an integrated fashion" (p. 142).

Put concisely, Chamot states that "teachers should certainly opt for explicit instruction, although they should be aware that implicit (embedded) messages can also be powerful. And, practical difficulties notwithstanding, teachers should probably integrate the instruction into the regular course work" (2008, p. 273).

LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION

Throughout the years, whether or not the strategy training should be conducted in students' native language or target language has been an issue of debate with no definite answer emerging, as the language of instruction is heavily dependent on the students' proficiency level. Linguistically proficient students are better able to understand directions and rationale for strategy use in the target language in comparison to beginning learners. Although students do need to be exposed to the target language as frequently as possible, it is difficult to not use the native language to conduct strategy training in the lower level courses (Macaro, 2001, as referenced in Griffiths, 2008).

However, as students progress in their language proficiency, the teacher can begin to incorporate more strategy training in the target language until students reach a proficiency level in which they can handle full instruction in the target language (Grenfell & Harris, 1999).

A REVIEW OF STRATEGY TRAINING MODELS

In this section, a review of several current (and popular) strategy training models are presented. These models are based heavily on the strategy training research and contribute greatly to the presentation of the 6 Steps to Success, a new model for language learning, found in subsequent section.

CALLA

The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), created by Anna Uhl Chamot and J. Michael O'Malley in 1986 provides a solid example of strategy training instruction. The CALLA is a strategies based curriculum designed for English Language Learners, in which explicit strategy training and language building activities are integrated into content area instruction. With its highly interactive (and successful) curriculum, CALLA is widely used in school across America, Canada, and Spain (Chamot & O'Malley, 1996).The focus of the CALLA is on making language learning meaningful and giving students the tools to be successful learners (hence the strategy training).

The CALLA is learner-centered and the teacher aims to help students recognize the value of their prior knowledge. It includes five steps which are not just linear, but can be reviewed as the need arises. The steps include:

1. Preparation- In this stage, the teacher helps students to become aware of their prior knowledge (which also allows the teacher to see the gaps in the students' knowledge).
2. Presentation- This stage includes the teaching of new material. The material should be meaningful, and in the initial stages, the teacher should provide scaffolding. The presentation stage also includes teacher modeling of strategies.
3. Practice- The teacher should provide ample time for students to work on applying learning strategies to current and new activities. The practice stage often includes collaborative pair/group work.
4. Evaluation- After practicing the learned material, the teacher provides students with opportunity to evaluate their success. The goal of this activity is to develop metacognitive awareness of learning processes.
5. Expansion- Upon evaluating their progress with strategy use, students apply what they have learned to their world, outside of the classroom. They use strategies in new classes and tasks. Chamot and O'Malley note that at this point, the learner should be "independently strategic" and should be able to regulate their own learning.

Oxford

Rebecca Oxford's 1990 model has been frequently cited in the literature and is the base of many strategy training programs. In her "Strategy Training Model" (1990), she outlines eight steps. These eight steps can be seen in Table 1.

Table 6.2 STEPS IN THE STRATEGY TRAINING MODEL

1. Determine the learners' needs and the time available.
2. Select strategies well.
3. Consider integration of strategy training.
4. Consider motivational issues.
5. Prepare materials and activities.
6. Conduct "completely informed training."
7. Evaluate the strategy training.
8. Revise the strategy training.

Source: Original.

Table 1: Steps in the Strategy Training Model taken from Oxford, 1990, p. 204

Step 6 leaves room for the most interpretation, but and can be considered the most important, as it is includes the actual training of students (Oxford, 1990). In this step, teachers are encouraged to provide enough practice of the learned strategies in multiple tasks, as well as discuss with students how these strategies can be transferred to other language tasks. This practice and discussion can be made manifest by allowing students to work on a language task independently, then, as a class, openly discussing which strategies learners used and why. This then allows the teacher to segue into teaching new strategies, while building off the learners current strategy use. After practicing the new strategies, students are taught how to apply them to other language tasks. Oxford suggests that this model is the most useful for long-term strategy training, but can be adapted for shorter training use in specific units (1990).

Grenfell and Harris

Grenfell and Harris (1990) separate their strategy training model into five divisions: reading, listening, memorization, checking written work, and communication strategies. Although skill specific, their model is grounded on the following six steps:

1. Consciousness/Awareness Raising- Allow students to complete a task without any instruction. Once the task is complete, students and teacher engage in class discussion of what strategies the students used and how/if they were effective. The purpose of this step is to help learner to reflect on the process of learning.
2. Modeling- After the class discussion, the teacher will introduce new strategies to the students by teaching them and modeling them for the class.
3. General Practice- In this step, the teacher explicitly reminds students about the strategies learned and students begin to practice the use of strategies on related language tasks. This step has no time limit.
4. Action Planning- Students set personal goals and decide which strategies work best for them in various language tasks. In this step, learners create their own action plan (see Table 2 below) to assist them in reaching their goals.

Table 4.2 Action plan for developing reading skills

Action Plan	
Name:	
I want to be able to	*read articles in real French teenagers' magazines*
I have selected the following strategies	*looking for cognates, using the title and pictures for clues*
I will know I have improved because	*I won't give up half-way through the article and I won't have to look up so many words*

Table 2: Action Plan, taken from Grenfell and Harris, 1990, p. 80

5. Focused Practice- Students are given opportunities to practice strategies to help them reach the goals they have set for themselves in their action plan. In this step, the teacher provides enough focused practice as to help the learners internalize the

strategy, allowing the teacher to slowly fade out her explicit reminders of strategy use.

6. Evaluation- In the final stage, the students and teacher work together to reflect on the progress the student is making on their individual Action Plan. From here, the student can revise their action plan or, once completed, begin the process over again.

SBI- Cohen

The Strategies-Based Instruction model, presented by Andrew Cohen (1998) is a learner-centered approach that provides both an explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course content. In this outline, Cohen suggests the following model for strategy training:

(1) "describe, model, and give examples of potentially useful strategies;

(2) elicit additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experiences;

(3) lead small-group/whole-class discussions about strategies (e.g. reflecting on the rationale behind strategy use, planning an approach to a specific activity, evaluating the effectiveness of chosen strategies);

(4) encourage their students to experiment with a broad range of strategies; and

(5) integrate strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice."

(Taken from Cohen, 1998, p. 81)

In this model, Cohen also identifies the teacher as a “change agent”, facilitating the learning of their students and coming alongside the student as a partner in the learning process. As a change agent, the teacher can take several roles:

1. Teacher as diagnostician
2. Teacher as learner trainer
3. Teacher as coach
4. Teacher as coordinator
5. Teacher as language learner
6. Teacher as researcher

Bringing it Together: Towards the 6 Steps to Success

From this review of strategy training models and from the earlier review of language learning strategies, I now set forth a new model for strategy training: the 6 Steps to Success. The 6 Steps to Success was created from a synthesis of the strategy training models found the previous section and, as the name states, contains six steps. The steps are as follows:

1. Beginning of Course Assessment/Awareness Raising
2. Continued Assessment of Student Needs/Awareness Raising
3. Explicit Teaching and Modeling
4. Practice (in and out of class)
5. Evaluation
6. End of Course Evaluation

The 6 Steps is a student-centered model holding to the idea that learners can (and need to be) active participants in their own learning (Chamot & O'Malley 1996). It emphasizes that teachers should become partners in their students' learning (Grenfell & Harris 1990; Oxford et al., 1990), moving from the role of "all-knowing" to a facilitator of student knowledge. In this, the teacher must be confident in leading her students to becoming autonomous, independent learners.

For the purposes of this report, the 6 Steps model will cover general strategies, and will base these strategies off of the strategy categories as outlined by Oxford (1990). These strategies include: metacognitive, cognitive, social, affective, memory, and compensatory. Appendix B outlines the strategies included in each group.

The 6 Steps is cyclical, with the exception of Steps 1 and 6, which are completed at the beginning of the course and end of the course, respectively. After the completion of Step 1, Steps 2-5 can be used as often as possible, as determined by the teacher.

BEGINNING OF COURSE ASSESSMENT/AWARENESS RAISING

Step 1 begins with a preliminary assessment of student needs and awareness raising. This step is necessary as it is impossible for the teacher to build off previous knowledge (a later step) without first having knowledge of what her students currently know and which strategies they are currently using (Oxford, 1990). However, this assessment soon becomes tricky as not all learner strategies are visible to the teacher solely through observation. Cohen notes that as "language learning strategies are generally internal or mentalistic processes, certain research approaches may fail to provide adequate data on learners' strategy use" (1998, p. 26). To account for not only observable, but also unobservable strategies, it is important that the teacher uses multiple assessment tools. This model includes three types of assessment tools: the SILL strategy inventory, open class discussions about strategy use, and student observations.

The SILL strategy inventory (found in Appendix A) should be administered at the beginning of the course. Having students complete the SILL at the beginning of the course gives the teacher a starting point for conducting strategy training. It gives her an initial idea of which students use various strategy groups more frequently than others, if at all. Not only so, but the results from the inventory can give learners insight into their own learning process, hopefully spurring them on (with teacher guidance) to examine their own process of learning.

Following the SILL, an open class discussion should be held with students regarding their "results". Questions should be asked such as: Based on the SILL, which strategies do you use most frequently? Do you believe this is true? What other strategies do you use? Are these helpful to you? Why or why not?, etc.

The purpose of asking these questions is to guide the students in their understanding of their own learning process, helping them to reach a state of metacognitive awareness (Cohen, 1998). This discussion could be the students' first time to explicitly discuss strategies and as such, should emphasize "the general idea of language learning strategies and the way such strategies can help them accomplish various language tasks" (Oxford, 1990, p. 202). It should be motivating and fun, helping students to realize the importance of strategy use and preparing them for future strategy training (Oxford, 1990).

Alongside these two measurements, the teacher should do informal student observations. The amount of time for each observation is at the teacher's discretion, but it should be enough so that when coupled with the SILL and class discussion, the teacher has an adequate representation of which strategies her students use individually, as well as in group settings.

CONTINUED ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT NEEDS/AWARENESS RAISING

Having discussed the students' current strategy use and the importance of using strategies at the beginning of the semester, the teacher can then incorporate strategy training into her regular curriculum. In this model, the suggestion is to teach strategies as a need arises in the class. This "need" can be structured into the curriculum while pre-planning as well as "on-the-spot" when the teacher sees a mismatch or lack of strategy

use for a particular task. “On-the-spot” training will not be discussed here, but will follow Steps 2-5.

EXPLICIT TEACHING AND MODELING

Step 3 is where the fun begins. Once the teacher has identified the strategy needs of her students and has chosen where to insert them in the curriculum, she will then explicitly teach the strategy(ies) to her students. To explicitly teach strategies, the teacher can tell the students the name of the strategy (or have the students help the teacher create the name), and explain to them the purpose of the strategy. Then, the teacher will model the strategy for her students (Grenfell & Harris, 1990; Cohen, 1998; Oxford, 1990). Modeling can be done through a think-aloud. Thinking-aloud gives students “access” to teacher’s mind by letting them hear exactly what the teacher is thinking while using the strategy at each particular moment. It also introduces students to “self-regulatory language” (Chamot & O’Malley, 1996), helping students to learn how to talk about their own mental processes and language learning strategy use, resulting in more independent learners (Chamot & O’Malley, 1996). Along with thinking-aloud, the “Explicit Teaching and Modeling” step must be accompanied by visual clues, such as gestures, role plays, and demonstrations (Chamot & O’Malley, 1996).

PRACTICE

After the teacher has modeled the strategy, she must then allow adequate time to practice the strategy in class (Grenfell & Harris, 1990). To accomplish this, the teacher should have pre-planned activities for the students to work on. These activities can be conducting individually, in pairs/groups, or even as an entire class. During this step, the teacher must continue to monitor her students’ progress, ensuring that the each student

fully understands the strategy and can successfully apply it to the task given. This stage can also include a discussion of what other tasks the strategy could be useful for (Oxford, 1990; Grenfell & Harris, 1998), and what tasks the strategy would not be useful for.

The "Practice" step can last as long as necessary, as long as the teacher feels comfortable with her students' understanding and use of the strategy. Additionally, the teacher can ask students to implement the strategy out of class (whether for a homework assignment, or on their own), and report about their experience using the strategy.

EVALUATION

Following in and out of class practice time, an evaluation of the strategy should be conducted. The 6 Steps model proposes two methods for doing so: 1) teacher observations, and 2) a class discussion.

Observations can be conducted at any point in the class. If the teacher notices that students have not fully grasped the use of the strategy, she can then repeat Step 4 (practice), or, if need be, move back to Step 2 (explicit teaching and modeling).

In holding a class discussion, the teacher can elicit from the students their thoughts and opinions about the particular strategy. Was it useful? Did they enjoy it? Did they try the task without using the strategy? How did it compare? Will you use it again in the future? And the like. By partnering with the students in this way, the teacher demonstrates to the students that she values their opinion. This also helps the student feel in control of their learning, leading to even more independent, autonomous learners.

END OF COURSE EVALUATION

The sixth and final step occurs, as noted by its title, at the end of the course. In the "End of Course Evaluation", the teacher reflects on the strategy training process, her own personal teaching/modeling of strategies, how the students responded to instruction, and the increase (or decrease) in independent learners. As this model is learner-centered and as the teacher is a partner in the learning process, this step can also include a class discussion. The teacher can ask the students what they thought of the strategies learned, what was beneficial, what they would change, etc. By collecting these responses and conducting a personal evaluation, the teacher can then make changes to the strategy training, revising it and making it better for future classes.

In Action: Lesson Plans

To provide a sample of what the 6 Steps to Success looks like in action, below are five lesson plans. These lessons are geared to a Spanish as a Foreign Language classroom, but can be adapted to any foreign/second language. As can be seen, the 6 Steps to Success allows for variation within each classroom, as no two teachers, nor any two classrooms alike. The five lessons are as follows:

1. Lesson 1: Say It Already!
2. Lesson 2: Fast Flash
3. Lesson 3: And Your Point Is…??
4. Lesson 4: Are We There Yet???
5. Lesson 5: Don't Worry, Be Happy

Lesson 1: Say It Already!

Strategies used:
- Compensation- "Using circumlocution or synonyms"
- Social- "Cooperating with Peers"

Continued Assessment of Student Needs/Awareness Raising

- Begin by "forgetting" a word in class. Tell the students the word "slipped your mind", and begin describing the word in other ways until the students guess the word.
- *Example: "Oh… la palabra me escapó. La saben ustedes. Está en una casa. A dentro, tiene una cama, un armario, y cosas personales. Yo tengo uno y ustedes también. A veces se tiene que compartirlo con un hermano o hermana. ¿Como se dice esta palabra?*
- *(Oh- I forgot the word. You all know it. It's in house. Inside of it, there is a bed, dresser, and personal items. I have one and you all have one. Sometimes you share it with a brother or sister. What is this word??)*
- Continue in this track until the students guess "un cuarto" (bedroom). After this you can discuss with the students how you normally know the word, but forgot it momentarily. Was I able to get my point across anyway? How did I do that?

Explicit Teaching and Modeling

- This leads into a discussion of the use of circumlocution, what it is, and how to use it.
- *Example: As we saw, when you forget a word, instead of "freezing up", you can still get your point across by describing it in another way. This is*

called circumlocution. We do this in English as well. Can someone give me an example?

- *(Student will give an example)*
- *That's right! It's all about using the words that you do know, and not worrying or getting too upset about the words you don't know. For instance, if I don't know the word for book, I can still let the listener know what I am saying: "Es una cosa que se lee, algunas veces tiene muchas páginas, y algunas veces es muy corto. Se tiene que leer esta cosa en una clase de literatura. Que es?*
- *(It is a think that you read. Sometimes it has a lot of pages, sometimes not so many. You have to read this thing in a literature class. What is it?)*
- *(Students will guess "un libro") (book)*

Practice (in class)

- In this stage, the teacher will give the learner ample time to practice the strategy during the class period.
- *Example: Okay, now we are going to all practice the strategy of circumlocution. Has anyone ever played Catchphrase? In Spanish class, we call it "Lema". In Lema, you will be given a word, and have to describe it to your teammates using circumlocution (not saying the word). For the first two rounds, we will not use hand motions, as I want you to practice using your vocabulary. For the last round, you may use hand motions along with your vocabulary.*
- Break students up into groups of 6-8, then within those groups, two even teams. The students will sit in a circle, with every playing sitting next to someone from the opposite team. If you have Spanish catchphrase, use it,

but if not, place small strips of paper with words on them in a bag for the students to pass around. In using this technique, you are able to tailor the words students are describing to the current vocabulary words, or any area that you feel your students need extra work with.

Practice (out of class)

- To have students practice this on their own, assign a writing assignment in which students are given a list of words, and must write one-two sentences to describe the word without actually using it. They can then bring these to class the next day and share what they have come up with.

Evaluation

- After you have sufficiently practiced the strategy, the teacher can then do two things:
    - 1) Make classroom observations: observe your students! See how (if at all) they are using the strategy. During this stage, explicit reminders might be necessary at first, then gradually removed.
    - 2) Hold a class discussion. Was this strategy helpful to you? Why or why not? How can it work best for you? Has anyone tried this with a native speaker? Etc.

Lesson 2: Fast Flash

Strategies used:
- Memory- "Using Mechanical Techniques"
- Social- "Cooperating with Peers"

Continued Assessment of Student Needs/Awareness Raising

- During this stage, hold a class discussion with students on how they learn new words in Spanish. Students will give various responses, and as they do, provide positive feedback for each study technique that is contributed to the discussion. If students respond "flashcards", encourage them and move on to the explicit teaching step. If not, introduce the idea of flashcards, and ask the students if they have ever used this technique before. In what situation? Did it work? Did you like it?, etc.

Explicit Teaching and Modeling

- After eliciting (or introducing) vocabulary cards, lead into a more specific explanation of flashcards, why they are a learning strategy, how they are helpful, and how to make/use them.
- *Example: Learning new words in Spanish can be difficult, but flashcards are a great learning strategy to use to help us to learn words more quickly. Flashcards are especially helpful when studying for a quiz or test. Flashcards are great too, because you can use them by yourself, or with a partner or group.*
- *So, what goes on the flashcard? When trying to learn new words, one way to do is to put the Spanish word and any other relevant information (gender, pronouns, etc.) on one side, and write the word in English on the other side. Most of the time I just use a pen, but if I have markers, I like to*

write all of the Spanish words in one color, and all of the English words in another color.

- *Here is an example of my flashcards for this current chapter. I normally show myself the English word, and guess the Spanish equivalent, but it's really up to you. Then, as I guess the words, I place the words that I know in one pile, and the word I do not know in another pile. (Demonstrate guessing the flashcards by thinking-aloud and making two piles) After I go through all of the cards the first time through, I practice the "missed" pile until I feel confident about placing each word in the "know" pile. Then, I go through all of the words 1-2 more times through, just for the practice.*
- *Working alone is great, but it is also nice when you can learn with your friends. (Call on a student to help you, for this example: Steven). Steven, please help me on these words.*
- *(Steven will start to "quiz" you with the flashcards. Guess some correctly and some incorrectly). Okay, Steven is still making a "know" and a "missed" pile for me. When I'm not able to guess a word correctly, you can let your partner know that they can give you hints. The "size" of the hint is up to you, but whatever helps you to learn the best.*

Practice (in class)

- When the teacher feels confident that the students understand how to make and use flashcards, pass out flashcards to the class.
- *Example: We are going to practice using flashcards with this week's vocabulary words. I've got markers at the front of the room which you can use, or, pencils and pens if you prefer. When we are done creating our flashcards, we're going to practice using them together.*

- Give students enough time to complete their cards, then instruct them to work individually for several minutes. Constantly observe the class, making sure that all students understand and feel comfortable working alone. After a few minutes, allow the students to practice their flashcards with a partner.

Practice (out of class)

- For out-of-class practice, instruct the students to review the flashcard on their own for 15 minutes, and to practice with a family member or friend for another 15 minutes.

Evaluation

- After you have sufficiently practiced the strategy, the teacher can then do two things:
    - 1) Make classroom observations: observe your students! See how (if at all) they are using the strategy. During this stage, explicit reminders might be necessary at first, then gradually removed.
    - 2) Hold a class discussion. Was this strategy helpful to you? Why or why not? How can it work best for you? Has anyone tried this with a native speaker? Etc.

Lesson 3: And Your Point Is…?

Strategies used:
- Cognitive: "Taking Notes"

Continued Assessment of Student Needs/Awareness Raising

- Begin this lesson by having students complete a reading passage individually. It is important to make sure that the passage you select is at their reading proficiency level. For the purposes of this stage, it is also helpful if the passage takes the students no longer than 3-5 minutes to read.
- Once students complete the passage, open a class discussion. What was the main idea? What were the supporting facts? What other things occurred in the story? At some points, did you have to re-read to understand the information? If you were to re-read this passage again to two weeks, would you remember all of the details?

Explicit Teaching and Modeling

- As the students admit that it would be difficult to recall all of the details of the story in a few days, or that they had to re-read to stay on track, introduce the strategy of note taking.
- *Example: Whenever I used to read for a class, I had a really hard time focusing on all of the material. Plus, I would never remember all of the important information a few weeks later. One way to deal with this is by taking notes. Taking notes is a learning strategy that helps us to focus and recall information at a later time. Whenever I take notes, I look for points of interest in the story/important things that are being said. It's important*

to write down the main idea, too. If there are a lot of characters in the story, I'll take a separate sheet of paper and write down information about each character as they are introduced.

- Begin to model the strategy by reading the same passage as the students and thinking-aloud. Write your notes on an overhead projector or the dry erase board. After completing the think-aloud, check with your students to make sure that they understand the idea of taking notes and how to do so effectively. Effective use of this strategy might take more time for students to learn, so anticipate this when preparing for the lesson.

Practice (in class)

- To practice in class, give the students a new passage. Read the passage outloud to the class. As you begin reading through the passage, ask students to "chime in" when they believe that something should be written down for notes. If students are not able to pick out the important information in the passage, help them to do so by providing scaffolding. As you elicit the notes, be sure to write them down on an overhead monitor or dry erase board, so that the entire class can see them.
- Once completing a passage together, have the students read a third passage and take notes on their own. Be sure to constantly monitor and observe the notes that your students are taking to check for understanding. When students finish, give students the opportunity to share with the rest of the class what they wrote down in their notes (feel free to let them show the class if they would like, too!).

Practice (out of class)

- For students to practice out-of-class, assign a reading passage, and ask students to take notes and write down the main idea (and any character information, if you would like).
- When students come back to class, open a class discussion on what the students included in their notes. You can then collect the notes and review them, offering students feedback and encouragement.

Evaluation

- After you have sufficiently practiced the strategy, the teacher can then do two things:
    - 1) Make classroom observations: observe your students! See how (if at all) they are using the strategy. During this stage, explicit reminders might be necessary at first, then gradually removed.
    - 2) Hold a class discussion. Was this strategy helpful to you? Why or why not? How can it work best for you? Has anyone tried this with a native speaker? Etc.

Lesson 4: Are We There Yet??

Strategies used:
- Metacognitive: "Setting Goals and Objectives"

Continued Assessment of Student Needs/Awareness Raising

- This strategy can begin with a class discussion on whether or not students use goals in their everyday lives. Ask students questions such as: What do you use them for? Are they helpful? Have you ever tried doing the same activity without a goal? What was the outcome? Do you think that goals provide more direction? Etc.

Explicit Teaching and Modeling

- As students begin to recognize how they use (or do not use) goals and objectives in other areas of their life, begin to explain what a goal and objective is, and how to use them.
- *Example: So, a goal is something that you set for yourself. It is an achievement that you are working towards. For example, one of my personal goals is to (this varies depending on the teacher). Goals are normally considered long-term aims, such as several months, a semester, or even a school year. Objectives are similar to goals, except they refer to short-term aims, such as days and weeks.*
- *Goals and objectives are a helpful learning strategy, because they give us something to work towards and help to keep us on track. For this class, we are going to begin creating objectives for ourselves at the beginning of every chapter.*

- *When I create my objectives, I'm going to think about where I would like to be at the end of the chapter. Do I want to be able to use all of the vocabulary words in my speech? Do I want to be able to read faster? Do I want to make an "A" on the chapter test? Take all of these into consideration when writing your goals.*
- The teacher will then demonstrate creating goals by conducting a think-aloud.
- *Okay, pretend I am a student in this class. Let's see… my objectives. Well, I have trouble learning vocabulary, and trouble with (use whatever grammatical structure currently being studied). Right now, I have a "B" average, but would like to have an "A" at the end of the semester. What should my objectives be? I'd like to better understand (use current grammatical structure), and be able to use it in a sentence. I'd also like to make "A"s on every quiz and at least an "A" on the chapter test. What about vocabulary? Hmm… my objective for vocabulary is that I finish the chapter feeling confident using the vocabulary in conversations with my friends and other students in the class.*
- As you think-aloud, be sure to write down your objectives somewhere where the students can see them.

Practice (in class)

- After modeling for the class, give students the opportunities to set their own objectives for the current chapter. Instruct the students to write them down in their notebooks and hold on to them, so they can check their progress.

- If students feel comfortable, allow them to share their objectives with the class.

Practice (out of class)

- Instruct students to create objectives for themselves in one other class. When students complete the assignment, allow them to share with the class (if they feel comfortable), and even with the teacher of the subject they have created objectives for.

Evaluation

- After you have sufficiently practiced the strategy, the teacher can then do two things:
    - 1) Make classroom observations: observe your students! See how (if at all) they are using the strategy. During this stage, explicit reminders might be necessary at first, then gradually removed.
    - 2) Hold a class discussion. Was this strategy helpful to you? Why or why not? How can it work best for you? Has anyone tried this with a native speaker? Etc.

Lesson 5: Don't Worry, Be Happy

Strategies used:

- Affective: "Making Positive Statements", "Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else"

Continued Assessment of Student Needs/Awareness Raising

- Over the course of the semester, observe how your students "feel" about the Spanish language. When students seem especially upset about the class (potentially after a hard quiz/test), open a class discussion and ask students how their negative emotions towards the language help or hinder them in the classroom.

Explicit Teaching and Modeling

- After conducting this discussion, introduce to the students the learning strategies of "Making Positive Statements" and "Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else".
- *Example: Negative emotions towards the language you are learning can often times hurt our ability to learn the language. What are some ways that we can help build positive feelings about our language learning?*
- Allow students to give responses and try to lead the answers towards the two affective strategies. Encourage students as they offer responses.
- *There are several learning strategies to help us deal with the "emotions" of learning a second language. One is to discuss the way you are feeling with a friend, family member, or myself. You never know, your classmates could be feeling the exact same way that you are. If you don't feel comfortable sharing your feelings with someone else, writing them down is also helpful.*

- *Another strategy that can help in language learning is encouraging ourselves along the way. I know that sometimes it can sound "cheesy", but we have to believe in ourselves, and encouragement helps us to do that, as well as give us that extra boost.*
- Begin a think-aloud demonstrating "Making Positive Statements"
- *For example, as I do the homework, even though I know it's hard, I tell myself I'm doing a good job.* (Work a homework "problem" on worksheet/ out of the book). *Okay, you're doing great, only a few more left. That was confusing, but you seemed to have answered it correctly. Okay, good job!*

Practice (in class)

- To practice these two strategies in class, hold class meetings (how frequently is at your discretion) and allow students to discuss how they are feeling about learning the new language.
- "Making Positive Statements" is harder to practice, as it is an internal process which you cannot readily observe. For this strategy, it is best to explicitly remind students (on a regular basis) to encourage themselves.

Practice (out of class)

- To practice out of class, encourage students to discuss their feelings about language learning with a family member or friend (or ask them to write in a journal).
- For "Making Positive Statements", encourage students to encourage themselves while working on homework assignments.

Evaluation

- After you have sufficiently practiced the strategy, the teacher can then do two things:
    - 1) Make classroom observations: observe your students! See how (if at all) they are using the strategy. During this stage, explicit reminders might be necessary at first, then gradually removed.
    - 2) Hold a class discussion. Was this strategy helpful to you? Why or why not? How can it work best for you? Has anyone tried this with a native speaker? Etc.

Conclusion

This Report has provided an overview of research on language learning strategies, strategy instruction, and has offered the 6 Steps to Success, a new approach to strategy training. Research supports that language learning strategies are indeed used by learners to varying degrees and are a vital tool in the second language classroom. Explicit strategy training has been demonstrated to be successful and it is suggested that the teacher keep the issues of her and her students' beliefs of student/teacher roles, culture (of both the classroom and the students), and learner variables in mind when implementing strategy training.

The 6 Steps to Success offers a concise model for teachers to follow that takes these variables into consideration when conducting strategy training. However, the issue of balancing class time between the explicit teaching of strategies/strategy instruction and target language instruction will be the sole discretion of the teacher. When using the 6 Steps model, explicit instruction will initially take more time, but as the teacher progresses through each step and feels more comfortable with the "flow" of the steps, a routine will form and less time will be needed.

While the field has come a long way since the early work of Joan Rubin, there is still much to be done. Strategy training is a step in the right direction and with time, scholars in the LLS field will begin to "fine-tune" the various aspects of strategy training. As teachers seek to help their students become autonomous language learners, it is my hope the 6 Steps model provides them with the tools necessary to help their learners reach a level of independence and success.

Appendix A

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English

Adapted from: www.finchpark.com/arts/sille.doc (accessed on April 15, 2012)

Directions

This form of the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. You will find statements about learning English. Please read each statement. On the worksheet, write the response (1,2,3,4, or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

1. Never or almost never true of me.
2. Usually not true of me.
3. Somewhat true of me.
4. Usually true of me.
5. Always or almost always true of me.

NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE OF ME
means that the statement is very rarely true of you.
USUALLY NOT TRUE OF ME.
means that the statement is true less than half the time.
SOMEWHAT TRUE OF ME.
means that the statement is true about half the time.
USUALLY TRUE OF ME
means that the statement is true more than half the time
ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE OF ME
means that the statement is true of you almost always.

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Put your answers on the Worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually takes 20 – 30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, let the teacher know immediately.

EXAMPLE:

1. Never or almost never true of me.
2. Usually not true of me.
3. Somewhat true of me.
4. Usually true of me.
5. Always or almost always true of me.

Read the item, and choose a response (1 through 5, as above). And write it in the space after the item.

I actively seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers of English. …….

You have just completed the example item. Answer the rest of the items on the Worksheet.

Name:_____ Class:_____ Date:_____

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

1. Never or almost never true of me.
2. Usually not true of me.
3. Somewhat true of me.
4. Usually true of me.
5. Always or almost always true of me.

Part A

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. I physically act out new English words.
8. I review English lessons often.
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

Part B

10. I say or write new English words several times.
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.
12. I practice the sounds of English.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. I start conversations in English.
15. I watch English language TV shows or go to movies spoken in English.
16. I read for pleasure in English.
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
18. I first skim an English passage (read it quickly) then go back and read carefully.
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
20. I try to find patterns in English.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Part C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.

25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
27. I read English without looking up every new word.
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

Part D

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
38. I think about my progress in learning English.

Part E

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

Part F

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or to say it again.
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
47. I practice English with other students.
48. I ask for help from English speakers.
49. I ask questions in English.
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Name:_____ Class:_____ Date:_____

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Answering and Scoring the SILL

1. The blanks (…….) are numbered for each item on the SILL.
2. Write your response to each item (write 1,2,3,4, or 5) in each of the blanks.
3. Add up each column. Put the result on the line marked SUM.
4. Divide by the number under SUM to get the average for each column. Round this average off to the nearest tenth, as in 3.4.
5. Figure out your overall average. To do this, add up all the SUMS for the different parts fo the SILL. Then divide by 50.
6. When you have finished, look at the Profile of Results. Copy your averages from the Worksheet onto the Profile.

Part A		**Part B**		**Part C**		**Part D**		**Part E**		**Part F**	
Q1.	.	Q10		Q24.		Q30		Q39.		Q45	
Q2.		Q11		Q25.		Q31		Q40.		Q46.	
Q3.		Q12		Q26		Q32		Q41.		Q47.	
Q4.		Q13		Q27.		Q33		Q42.		Q48.	
Q5		Q14		Q28.		Q34		Q43.		Q49.	
Q6.		Q15		Q29		Q35		Q44.		Q50.	
Q7.		Q16				Q36					
Q8.		Q17				Q37					
Q9		Q18				Q38					
		Q19									
		Q20									
		Q21									
		Q22									

	Q23						
SUM Part A:	SUM Part B:		SUM Part C:	SUM Part D:	SUM Part E:	SUM Part F:	A+B+C+D +E+F =
SUM ÷ 9 (Average)	SUM ÷ 14 (Average)		SUM ÷ 6 (Average)	SUM ÷ 9 (Average)	SUM ÷ 6 (Average)	SUM ÷ 6 (Average)	A+B+C+D +E+F ÷ 50 =

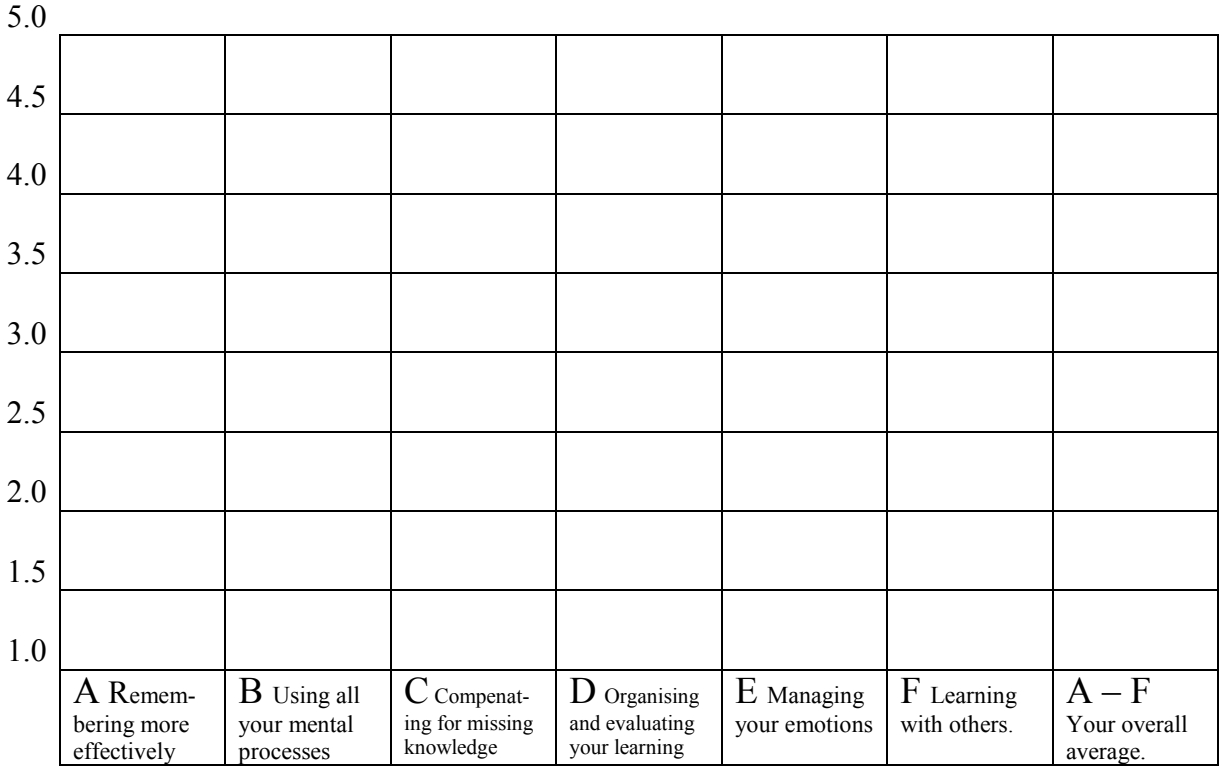
Profile of Results

This Profile shows your SILL results. These results will tell you the kinds of strategies you use in learning English. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. To complete this profile, transfer your averages for each part of the SILL, and your overall average for the whole SILL. These averages are found on the Worksheet, at the bottom.

Part	Which strategies are covered	Your Average on this part
A	Remembering more effectively.	
B	Using all your mental processes.	
C	Compensating for missing knowledge.	
D	Organizing and evaluating your learning.	
E	Managing your emotions.	
F	Learning with others.	

Key to understanding your averages:

High	Always or almost always used.	4.5 to 5.0
	Usually used.	3.5 to 4.4
Medium	Sometimes used.	2.5 to 3.4
	Generally not used.	1.5 to 2.4
Low	Never or almost never used.	1.0 to 1.4



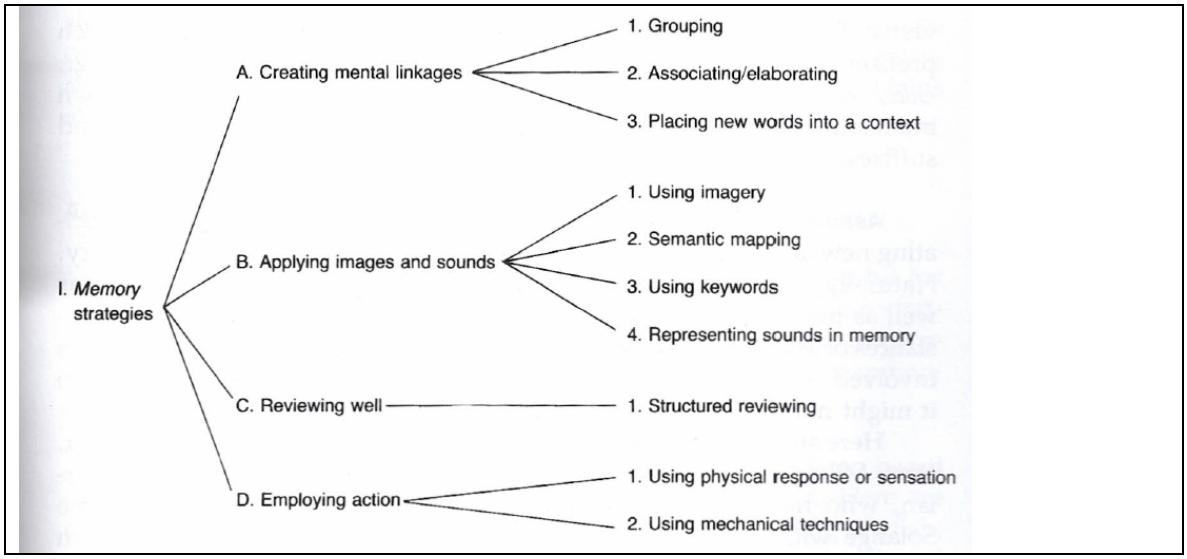
The overall average tells you how often you use strategies for learning English. Each part of the SILL represents a group of learning strategies. The averages for each part of the SILL show which groups of strategies you use most for learning English.

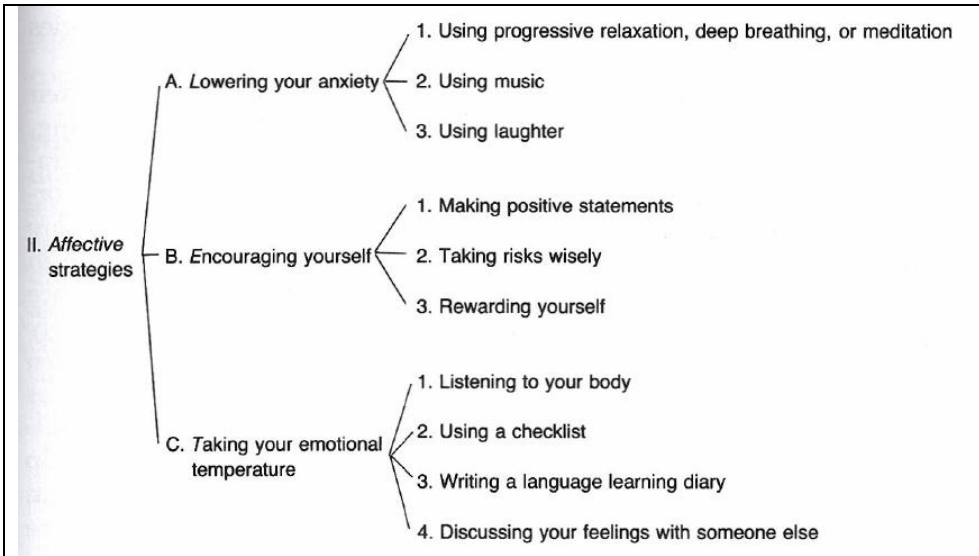
Appendix B

Breakdown of Strategies by Category

Found in:

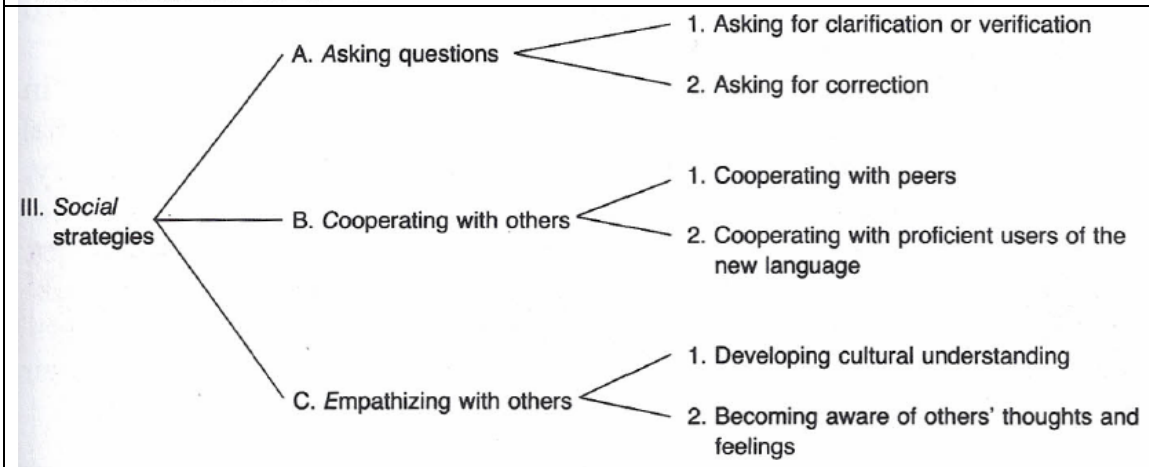
Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: what every teacher should know.* Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.





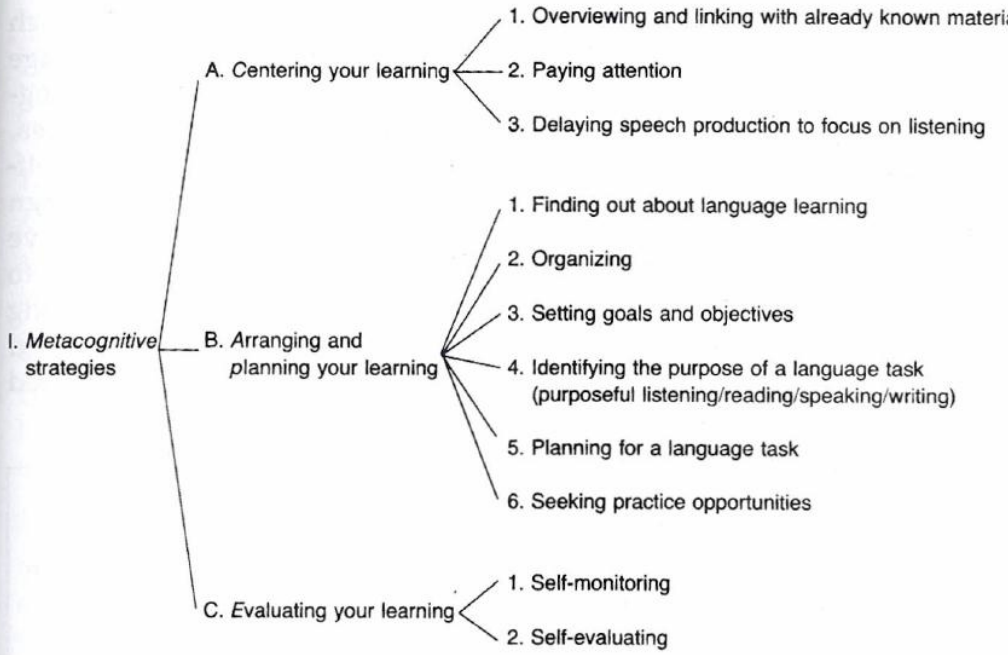
Memory Aid: LET

"Affective strategies help language learners LET their hair down!"



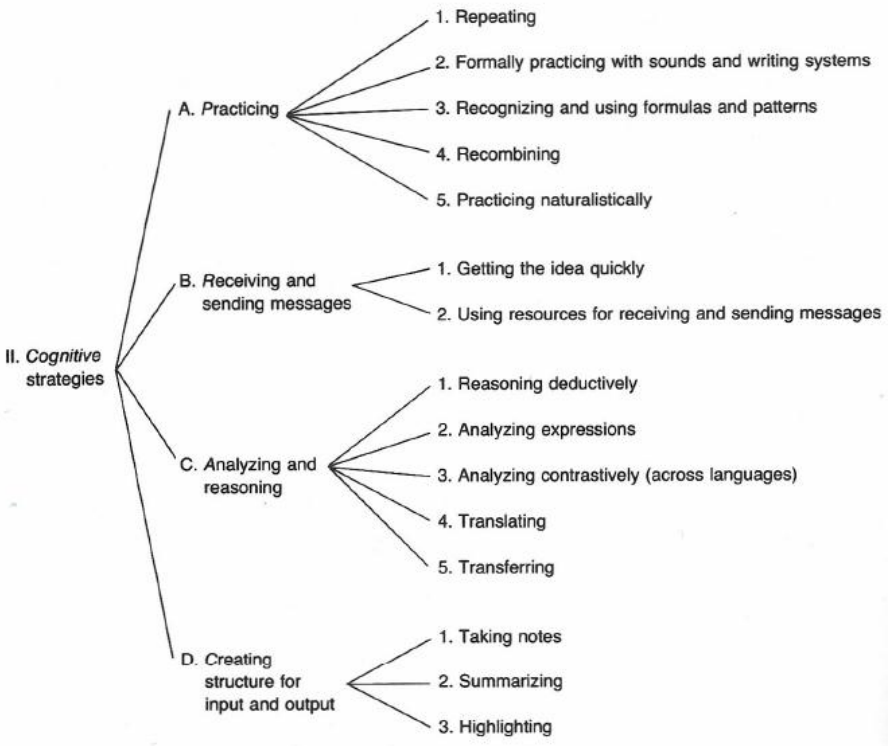
Memory Aid: ACE

"ACE language learners use social strategies!"



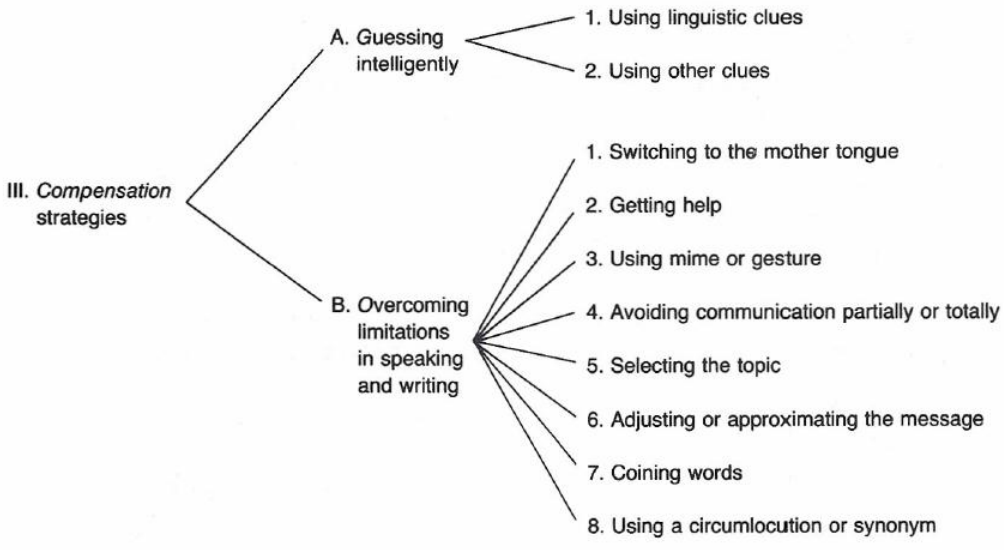
Memory Aid: CAPE

"Metacognitive strategies make language learners more CAPE-able."



Memory Aid: PRAC

"Cognitive strategies are PRAC-tical for language learning."



Memory Aid: GO

"Language learners can GO far with compensation strategies."

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